

## News

## Weather, Land Satellite Sale

President Ronald Reagan announced on March 8 plans to sell to private industry the nation's land and meteorological remote-sensing satellites, including the responsibility for any future ocean-observing systems. According to the plan, the private firm successful in its bid to buy the five satellites would sell back to the government the data received by the satellites. The Reagan administration says the sale will save money and will put activities appropriate for commercial ventures into the commercial sector. Response to the announcement from scientists and congressmen has been anything but dulcet; one senator, in fact, charges that the Commerce Department and the corporation most likely to purchase the satellites are engaged in a 'sweetheart deal.'

Immediate concerns expressed by scientists and congressmen over the sale of the satellites include the potential for interruption of service resulting from corporate financial difficulties or labor disputes; the possible disruption of information flow to international users of U.S. satellite data; the possibility of data being subject to copyright; and the question of a commercial satellite company having a monopoly on the satellite data essential to the U.S. government. Critics also question whether the government will save any money by selling the LANDSAT land remote-sensing satellite, the two polar orbiting satellites, and the two geostationary operational environmental satellites (GOES).

The National Weather Service (NWS), within the Commerce Department's National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), would not be dismantled or sold, according to NOAA Administrator John V. Byrne.

The plan to sell the satellites, according to NOAA officials, was prompted by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB). OMB wanted to eliminate the costly LANDSAT program, which supplies information used by, among others, seismologists, geologists, farmers, and urban planners. However, because the market for the LANDSAT data is small, commercial ventures were reluctant to buy the satellite but were more interested in purchasing the weather satellites, thereby buying into the huge market for weather information. According to one current estimate, the public spends \$100 million a year accessing prerecorded telephone weather information, and the media spends \$1.7 billion to disseminate weather information. NOAA Administrator Byrne noted that bids would be accepted only from U.S. firms and would be accepted for either the weather satellites, the land satellite, or all of the remote-sensing satellites.

The Communications Satellite Corporation, better known as Comsat, is considered the frontrunner among the firms that would be willing to buy the remote sensing satellites. In fact, Comsat made a proposal to the government in the spring of 1981 to purchase both the land and meteorological satellites. That proposal reportedly states that Comsat would be willing to buy the satellites if the government would guarantee that it would pay roughly \$300 million a year for 15 years. In a statement issued in response to Reagan's announcement, Comsat said that 'such a transfer is possible without a disruption in the service provided to national and international users and will ensure the continued development in the U.S. of this very important [satellite] technology.' A Comsat spokesman said it would be premature to comment on any possible savings that might accrue to the government as a result of the sale.

Much of the criticism of the plan stems

from the apparent lack of a cost-benefit analysis to determine if the government would indeed save money by selling the satellites. At a March 14 Senate hearing on the NWS budget, Sen. Larry Pressler (R-S.D.) revealed that the Commerce Department was sent a report in November from the Department of Defense and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) claiming that the government would spend more money buying back weather and land data from private companies than would it would spend if the government kept the satellites. In spite of this report's analysis, Pressler says, the Reagan administration has gone ahead with plans to sell the satellites. The South Dakota senator accused the Commerce Department and Comsat of being involved in a 'sweetheart deal.'

Dated November 10, 1982, the report referred to by Pressler was sent to Assistant Deputy Secretary of Commerce Michael Bayer from Major General Earl G. Peck of the Defense Department and Kathleen Charles of NASA. According to Kevin Schieffer, legislative assistant to Pressler, the report is a 'broad-based analysis' based on reports requested from more than a dozen companies on the pros and cons of the commercialization of land and weather satellites. However, the existence of the report, or any other study on the cost effectiveness of selling the satellites to the private sector, was not known to any of the more than a dozen witnesses testifying in mid March in House and Senate hearings on the proposed fiscal 1984 budget for NWS. Though labelled 'official use only,' the Peck-Charles report contains no proprietary information, Schieffer said. Pressler has requested that the Senate Committee on Commerce, Science, and Transportation ask Bayer to make the report available to scientists and others for evaluation of the costs and benefits of commercializing the remote-sensing satellites.

Pressler, whose home state is also home to the Interior Department's EROS (Earth Resources Observation Systems) Data Center, introduced into the Senate on February 15 a bill (S. 480) to block the Secretary of Commerce from transferring the ownership or management of any civil land or meteorological remote sensing space satellite system and associated ground equipment without congressional approval. Rep. Roy P. Dyson (D-Md.) introduced a companion bill (H.R. 1958) in the House on March 8, the day of Reagan's announcement. Both bills have been sent to committee. Hearings on the proposal have not been scheduled, but are likely to be held in late spring following budget deliberations.—BTR

## UCAR Group Urges STORM Program

A blue-ribbon panel of scientists has proposed a decade-long, \$1 billion program to improve forecasting operations and research of regional and local hazardous weather. The panel, appointed by the University Corporation for Atmospheric Research (UCAR), believes that the program could reduce the \$20-billion annual cost of damage from severe weather by \$1 billion per year.

The primary aim of the program is to 'enable weather services, public and private, to observe and predict stormscale weather phenomena—such as squall lines, thunderstorms, flash floods, local heavy snows, or tornadoes—with the accuracy and reliability to protect the public, serve the national economy, and meet defense requirements,' as explained in the report, *The National STORM (Stormscale Operational and Research Meteorology) Program: A Call to Action*. Stormscale phenomena also include nonviolent weather: freezing rain, dense ground fog, low-lying clouds that disrupt ground or air traffic, persistent temperature inversions, and strong nocturnal cooling that may produce killing frosts.

'Stormscale phenomena are closely related to large-scale weather,' according to George S. Benton, professor of meteorology at the Johns Hopkins University and chairman of the UCAR committee, who testified before the House Subcommittee on Natural Resources, Agricultural Resources, and Environment on March 9. 'It is the distribution of large-scale cyclones and anticyclones—low and high pressure areas—that determines whether a broad region has predominantly stormy or fair weather. But it is the occurrence, he continued, of stormscale phenomena which determines the particular [sic] localities within the stormy region that experiences the devastating flash flood or the destructive windstorm. Stormscale phenomena are embedded within the large-scale weather patterns, and it is often the specific location and time of occurrence of the stormscale events that are of the greatest concern to our citizens.'

The operations portion of the National STORM Program aims to deploy the technology essential to gathering, analyzing, predicting, and disseminating small-scale weather information; the research portion, on the other hand, would ensure that the new-generation, high-technology operational system would be used to its maximum benefit. The research portion of STORM also aims to train forecasters to use the new predictive techniques.

## Editorial

## On Beginning A Career

At the 1982 AGU Fall Meeting, about 50 young men and women attended a panel discussion entitled 'Doubts and Discouragements: Beginning a Career' sponsored by AGU's Education and Human Resources Committee. The panelists (Joyce Blueford, U.S. Geological Survey; Constance Saccetta, Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory; and Percy Donaghy, University of Rhode Island) focused the wide ranging discussion on the special problems of graduate study and early professional life.

Blueford urged students to assess all of the possible careers. Too often students are exposed only to the academic teaching and research role. She suggested that each person periodically outline his or her own priorities and lifestyle to see what type of job fits, pointing out that one's desires and ideas change as one develops. To find out about job advantages and drawbacks, she suggested that one should contact graduates of one's school to see what they have done. Once the job type is determined, the young person must develop the right image, work hard, and make contacts to get ahead.

Saccetta discussed some of the problems encountered by graduate students. She felt that some drop out because they are uncertain of the direction in which they want to go. Others doubt their own ability to do creative, independent science. She stressed that these doubts are common to everyone, and that goals and confidence solidify as one advances. Another common feeling is that of being ignored and getting little support from advisors—the 'I don't get no respect' syndrome. The student feels isolated and thinks that no one really cares how he or she is doing. It is important to talk about these feelings and ask for help, she said. 'The faculty may be more supportive than you think, but they don't automatically know how you feel; you must go and tell them.'

Donaghy outlined the problems of the young professional trying to become established in a crowded field. He suggested that if one goes for 'hard money' (income provided by guaranteed salary) in academics, it means taking a heavy teaching load, which eliminates most of the research time, only to be told at promotion time that 'teaching counts for nothing; promotion is based upon publication.' Percy advised future assistant professors to check the history of promotion at each school, since standards differ. A 'soft money' (income contingent on grants) research job is often an umbrella project, in which several young scientists cooperate under the guidance of a senior scientist. This is very appealing; someone else worries about the funding while you are doing exciting work on the cutting edge, but the young scientist runs the risk of becoming an 'et al.'

'You must identify yourself as a unique

scientist doing unique work,' said Donaghy. This can be done by giving talks at meetings and seminars at other institutions and by publishing papers on which you are sole author. However, as you begin to define yourself you will come in conflict with established people whose ideas you question and with whom you start to compete for funding. 'You are bound to step on a few toes sooner or later if you do exciting work, and you will have to realize that that's the way science grows and not be crushed by the fights you lose.'

Remarks by members of the audience brought out several points. An older woman suggested that young scientists adopt a mentor, an older and more experienced person willing to give advice, introduce one to senior colleagues, and explain how the system works. Several people noted that nice guys can finish first; that it is possible to be successful and self-confident while retaining a concern for others. Most students in the audience seemed to see their advisors as insensitive egotists making rigid demands; many expressed a desire that faculty give those who will not go into academics more information on alternative careers. Dr. Barbara Emery of the National Center for Atmospheric Research said that she had found teamwork boring when she performed only her part of the routine; once she took the initiative to shoulder more responsibility she enjoyed it much more. Dr. Louise Levien of Exxon Production Research Co. urged people not to give up if the first job is disappointing. 'Give science another chance in another place before you decide it's not for you.'

A problem which was discussed at some length is one of concern to young women: the apparent impossibility of sustaining a full-time, demanding job and also having a family. Aside from the personal joy of having a family, it was felt that parenting is an important contribution; but the system at present does not allow for part-time workers, who may produce less per year but are still doing valuable research. A different standard of promotion or award might be applied to such people, although it is hard to know what the standard might be; it would represent a basic change in the system. Those women who have been most successful have either been young when they had children and then worked very hard to catch up, or had children after they had become established. The panel cautioned young women not to set unreasonable goals for themselves, but to find a workable way to satisfy both parts of their lives.

The Committee plans to hold another panel at the 1983 AGU Spring Meeting, with speakers from academia, government agencies, industry, and consulting firms to discuss the relative advantages and drawbacks of various career directions.

Constance Saccetta, Member  
Charles Hollister, Chairman  
AGU Education and Human Resources  
Committee

program and closely link the research and operations portions, Benton emphasized at a recent press conference to unveil STORM. No matter how good the predictions, they are of no value unless they can be transmitted rapidly by trained meteorologists to those people who need and use them, he noted.

The UCAR committee believes that three key ingredients have primed meteorology for a successful stormscale program: 'vastly improved understanding of and ability to predict the large-scale motions of the atmosphere'; the technology 'to observe, analyze, and disseminate stormscale weather information with a level of sophistication substantially greater than would have been possible only ten years ago'; and the 'availability of improved computers.'

At least seven major federal departments and agencies would be closely involved with the program: the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), Defense, Interior, and Transportation, the Environmental Protection Agency, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, and the National Science Foundation (NSF). The UCAR committee encourages these agencies and departments to establish a program coordinating office as the next step in the STORM program's development. The committee also recommends that a scientific organizing committee be established within the National Academy of Sciences within the next few months and that a program advisory committee be assembled within 1983 for more detailed program planning. UCAR, a consortium of 50 universities that manages, under contract with NSF, the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), was a catalyst in developing the National STORM Program. During 1983-1988, the first of three pro-

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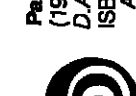
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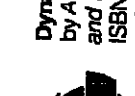
**Anelasticity in the Earth (1981)**, edited by F.D. Stacey, M.S. Palerson, A. Miculot, 320 pages, illustrated, ISBN: 0-87590-506-6 \$20.00.  
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Published data on geological and geophysical research in the eastern Alpine-Himalayan belt are frequently difficult to find outside the countries of this region. Here still are readily available authoritative syntheses such as those presented in this volume, which treat many aspects of orogeny in the Zagros, Hindu Kush, and Himalaya fold belt.



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**Dynamics of Plate Interiors (1982)**, edited by A.W. Bally, P.L. Berber, T.R. McGee, 160 pages, 16 color plates, ISBN: 0-87590-508-0 \$25.00.  
An interdisciplinary focus on the movements of the surface and upper part of the earth's interior. It explores the deformation which occurred along narrow belts between the lithospheric plates and leads to an understanding of the earth process where from vertical motions occurred within the plates remote from plate boundaries.

**Continental and Oceanic Riffs (1982)**, edited by G. R. V. Nairn, 200 pages, illustrated, ISBN: 0-87590-504-3 \$26.00.  
A comparative study of the World Riff Zones. Papers deal with various physical aspects of rifts including ground deformation, seismicity, gravity and heat flow.



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**Alpine Mediterranean Geodynamics (1982)**, edited by H. Bockheim and K. Hei, 224 pages, illustrated, ISBN: 0-87590-503-X \$22.00.  
Expands and highlights on the remarkable progress in the knowledge and understanding of the geophysical evolution of this complex region. Presented here are papers on extensional tectonic processes, crustal studies at passive margins, investigations proposed mechanisms for margin evolution; those based on stress and those based on thermal factors. Also explores the interrelationship between passive margins and continental interiors.



**Dynamics of Passive Margins (1982)**, edited by R.A. Scrutton, 200 pages, illustrated, ISBN: 0-87590-509-9 \$20.00.  
A three-pronged approach to the study of passive continental margins. Contains essential observational data for testing hypotheses of passive margin evolution. Bridges the gap between observation and theory. Research concentrates on special studies at passive margins, investigates proposed mechanisms for margin evolution; those based on stress and those based on thermal factors. Also explores the interrelationship between passive margins and continental interiors.



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posed program phases, the first multi-scale field experiment would be planned, a small field program with limited objectives would be conducted, and data sets would be analyzed. During the second phase (1987-1991), the later multi-scale field experiments would be planned and conducted, and analysis of the data from these experiments would be begun. The last phase of the program (to extend as late as 1995) would see the analysis of the data from all of the experiments completed. Throughout the entire period, other research—including modeling studies, technology development, and the transfer of information and techniques to the operational community—would be conducted.

In addition to chairman Benton, the National STORM Program committees also include Ernest M. Agee (Purdue University); Richard A. Anthes (NCAR); Lance F. Bosart (State University of New York at Albany); Michael Fritsch (Pennsylvania State University); Peter V. Hobbs (University of Washington); John Hurrell (National Meteorological Center); Robert McClatchey (Air Force Geophysics Laboratory); Ildor Orlandi (Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory); Frederick Sanders (Massachusetts Institute of Technology); Robert J. Serafini (NCAR); Patrick Squires (NCAR); and Verner E. Suomi (University of Wisconsin-Madison).—BTR

## Sunspots Affect Insolation

The notion of a rigorously constant amount of solar radiation reaching the earth was upset recently by a team of scientists at the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR). John Eddy, Ronald Gilliland, and Douglas Hoyt of NCAR's High Altitude Observatory report that sunspots, which speckle the sun's surface in a fluctuating 11-year cycle, diminish the amount of sunlight reaching the earth. Their conclusion, which may radically affect global climate modeling, is based on data gathered from the Solar Maximum Mission (SMM) satellite and their own solar blocking model.

Data collected by the SMM satellite reveal that only a small fraction of the energy blocked by sunspots is balanced by immediate, enhanced emissions from bright areas on the sun. Moreover, solar energy can remain trapped in the sunspots, which have an average diameter of 9000 km, for years. Blocked radiative energy can be stored in the lower convective zone of the sun and have a "relaxation time scale" of 100,000 years, during which time it may slowly seep out. Fluctuating solar output affects the accuracy of global climate models that forecast long-term effects on the world's weather. Weather and climate are determined by the circulation patterns of the oceans and air, which are driven by solar energy coupled with the rotational inertia of the spinning planet.

The NCAR scientists compared data obtained from the Active Cavity Radiometer Irradiance Monitor (ACRIM) aboard the SMM satellite with terrestrial surface temperature data and, using their solar blocking model, successfully duplicated the patterns of energy fluctuations. They can now predict the short-term excursions in solar radiation a few days in advance, the scientists say, based on measurements of sunspot areas and their locations along with the known rotational properties of the sun. In addition, they can reconstruct the history of past fluctuations in solar radiation from the archived sunspot data of the past 108 years.

Launched February 14, 1980, the SMM satellite has detected variances of 0.1% in solar energy output. Such fluctuations correspond to a change of 10 °C in the average temperature of the sun, which is 5700 °C. If the variance is persistent, the scientists say, the earth's surface will respond directly and predictably: global cooling will follow a decrease in solar radiation and global warming will follow an increase.

Theoretically, fluctuations in the release of solar energy can affect climate profoundly (Eos, August 26, 1980, p. 596). Mean global temperatures would drop more than 1 °C in response to a 1% decrease in output of solar radiation. A drop in output of energy of only 0.6% would cover the entire earth with ice.—MEG

## Long Valley Earthquakes Wane

The intense swarm of earthquakes that began January 6, 1983, in the Long Valley region of eastern California continues to abate. The rate of earthquakes of magnitude 1 or greater (Richer scale) fell to 24 per day by February 8, compared to 100 per day in late January and 1000 tremors recorded on January 7. Prior to the current swarm, the average daily number of magnitude 1 or greater earthquakes was 8-10. The area has experienced more than eight seismic swarms since the four magnitude 5.6-6.1 earthquakes of May 25-27, 1980, that occurred in the southern part of the Long Valley caldera. Early ground deformation measurements indicate

limited movement of magma deep within the earth.

However, despite the current abatement, recent brief flurries of activity were recorded when two magnitude 4 and one magnitude 3.5 earthquakes occurred on February 3 and 4, respectively. In addition, a magnitude 4.1 earthquake was recorded on February 24. The seismic activity that began in January has resulted in ground extensions of 5 cm in 6 km and uplifts of 8 cm as indicated by laser-distance measurements and precision surveying. According to U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) seismologist David P. Hill, the changes are more pronounced near the epicentral region which is 5 to 8 km east of the town of Mammoth Lakes. The town is located on the southwest edge of the 17 km by 32 km elliptical caldera. Sporadic tremors also have been recorded at this site.

Volcanologists consider spasmodic tremors as indicative of rock fracturing caused by the movement of magma or magmatic gases (Science, June 18, 1982, p. 1302). Reanalysis of the May 1980 earthquakes indicates that they were the result of a rapidly expanding crack that immediately filled with fluid. A USGS preliminary model to account for the latest deformation suggests movement of up to 20 cm on the seismically defined fault zone, accompanied by up to 76 cm of opening within that zone. The right-lateral slip movement is consistent with the seismically determined mechanism for the earthquakes according to Hill.

Previous seismic studies revealed the existence of a magma chamber near the town of Mammoth Lakes. Approximate measurements place it at a depth of between 8 km and 15 km and a distance across of 10 km. The 1980 tremors and the appearance of steam vents in January 1982 in the caldera region indicated to researchers that magma from deep in the earth was moving upward (Science, June 18, 1982, p. 1302).

Despite the recent decline in seismic activity, the Long Valley-Mammoth Lakes area remains covered by a notice of potential volcanic hazards issued by the USGS in May 1982. The region also is under an earthquake hazards watch, which has been in effect since May 1980.

## Wet February for Nation's Streams

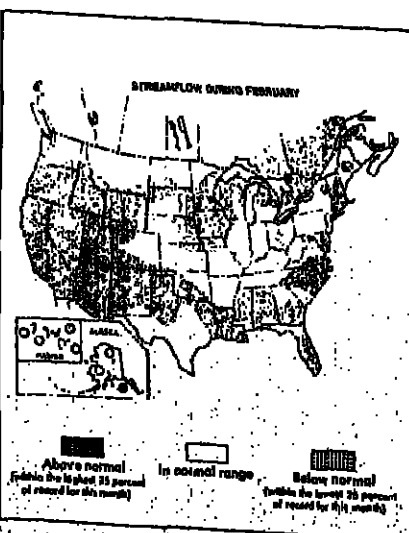
February marked a very wet month for the nation's streams with 97% of the key index gaging stations across the country reporting average to above-average streamflow, according to the U.S. Geological Survey.

USGS hydrologists said that the only stations that reported below-normal conditions for February were one gaging station each in New York, New Jersey, Ohio, and Alaska and all four of the key index stations in the Hawaiian Islands.

The near drought conditions on the Hawaiian Islands were a strong contrast to the generally wet conditions across the continental United States. All four of the key index gaging stations on the Islands reported streamflows well below average for February. On the large island of Hawaii, the key index gage on Waialeale Stream near Mountain View reported several days of zero flow during the month. Kilauea Volcano, located on the island of Hawaii, has erupted several times during the past two months, and the lack of moisture combined with the intense heat from the lava flow increased the threat of vegetation fires on the island.

As an indication of the nation's generally plentiful water picture, combined flow of the nation's "Big Five" rivers—Mississippi, St. Lawrence, Columbia, Ohio, and Missouri—averaged 889 billion gallons a day (bgd), 11% above the long-term average for February. The Big Five, which together drain more than half of the conterminous United States, provide hydrologists with a convenient check on overall national water conditions.

February marks the ninth straight month that the combined flow of the Big Five has been above average. Near the end of February, total daily flow of the Big Five was running 24% above the long-term combined monthly average, indicating that wet conditions could extend at least into early March.



Increased streamflows in February helped to halt a developing drought threat along much of the East Coast and inland to northern Alabama. All but two of the 31 key index gaging stations in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee reported average to above-average streamflow during February. In contrast, during January each of these states had reported well-below average streamflow at one or more index stations.

Working in cooperation with federal, state and local officials, USGS hydrologists routinely collect data on streamflow and ground-water conditions at more than 45,000 sites across the country. Highlights of February water conditions:

**Big Five:** Individual February flows—Mississippi River near Vicksburg, Miss., 494 bgd, 13% above average; St. Lawrence River near Massena, N.Y., 158 bgd, 5% above average; Columbia River at The Dalles, Ore., 89 bgd, 33% above average and 8% above last month's flow; Ohio River at Louisville, Ky., 88 bgd, 22% below average, but up 44% from the January flow; and the Missouri River at Hermann, Mo., 60 bgd, 87% above average and 17% above last month.

**Ground-water conditions:** Ground-water conditions varied across the country. The water level in key index wells in Kentucky, Nebraska, North Dakota and Nevada set new record highs for February. All four of the key index wells in North Carolina reported water levels that were one to four feet above the long-term average. Ground-water conditions in Delaware and Maryland remained well below average, with one key index well near Fairland, Maryland, reporting the 29th consecutive month of below-average water levels. The water level in a key index well near El Paso, Texas, fell to 78 in below the land surface, the lowest level reported at this well in 18 years of record.

## Detecting Electron Precipitation

Preliminary results were recently reported from the Navy's Stimulated Emission of Energetic Particles (SEEP) satellite regarding detection of simulated magnetospheric electron precipitation from ground-based Navy VLF transmitters (Eos, January 18, 1983). The results, first released at the AGU Fall Meeting, were obtained on passes during mid-August 1982, using coded transmitter pulses with a duty cycle of 3 s on, 2 s off.

We note here that a similar experiment was conducted by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) using low-cost, recoverable rocket payloads from Wallops Island, Virginia, during late June and early July 1982. These flights also used the Navy VLF transmitter (NSS) at Annapolis, Maryland, with the same coding as that used for the later SEEP experiment. Participants in the NASA experiment included scientists from Goddard Space Flight Center, Denver University, and Cornell University. The results of this experiment, also reported at the AGU Fall Meeting, show evidence for pulsed electron precipitation patterns with the same period as the transmitted VLF pulses. These results were accomplished by sensing the bremsstrahlung X rays produced when the electrons reenter the atmosphere. A zenith-viewing, wide angle X ray detector was stabilized with a slow descent aboard a parachute-hung payload; this permitted a statistical build-up of the X ray signals over thirty 5-s cycles, a benefit not afforded by a fast moving satellite. Cross correlation analysis of the X ray data with the transmitted signal clearly demonstrated the existence of this effect at a detectable level under nighttime conditions. The SEEP results, which measured the precipitating electrons in situ, are consistent with these earlier NASA findings.

The NASA result was used to establish the role of both anthropogenic and natural VLF sources as a magnetospheric stimulant. In particular, lightning appears to be a reasonable candidate for producing a continuous stream of magnetospheric electron drizzle, since approximately 2000 thunderstorms occur over the globe at any instant. Comparisons of the VLF energy from the VLF transmitter to that from lightning were made with onboard VLF receivers and show the lightning source to be larger on average by a factor of 10. More details on the NASA results can be found in an upcoming issue of Science under the title "Controlled Stimulation of Magnetospheric Electrons by Radio Waves: Experimental Model for Lightning Effects" by R. A. Goldberg et al.

This news item was submitted by R. E. Hartle of the NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center, Laboratory for Planetary Atmospheres, Greenbelt, MD 20771.

## Forum

### Research Funds

Joseph Walker's lambasting diatribe against accepting research funds from the Department of Defense (Eos, December 28, 1982, p. 1346) deserves some rebuttal. In particular, I would like to respond to his question, "Does acceptance of financial support from military sources make individuals and institutions dependent clients of the Pentagon?" The answer is of course not, unless they want to be.

As an Air Force scientist and research contract manager, I can state categorically that we put no pressure upon our contractors to become our "clients." Indeed, we caution them not to become too dependent upon Air Force funds for continued funding of research projects, due to year-to-year changes in programs of interest to the Air Force and availability of funds. The only "control" that we exert over contractors is their voluntary agreement to perform the work that they have unilaterally proposed to do by submitting an unsolicited proposal to us. These proposals are reviewed in-house, and funding is determined purely on relevance, availability of funds, and our estimate of the quality of the proposed research (investigators, facilities, etc.).

Thus, funding of a research project by the Air Force, at least in non-sensitive areas, is more volatile and has only slightly more stringent requirements (e.g., we usually require one scientific report or journal paper per year) than does funding by the National Science Foundation. This hardly makes our contractors our "clients," which I am sure can be attested to by the many Institute research scientists who have been funded by us over the years.

Richard C. Alford  
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### Another AGU Index

I note that Juan G. Roederer has proposed an index of AGU affiliation named JGR (Eos, October 19, 1982, p. 817). According to this index, Alaska is the most AGU-involved state in the Union. I praise his customary modesty in diminishing any connection between his initials and the name of the index. I think it only fitting that the index be applied on a worldwide basis since AGU in many ways transcends national boundaries, as indeed its subject matter does.

I propose that the worldwide index, applied to each country as the JGR index is applied to the states, should be named after either a well-known magnetic index or the Atmosphere Explorer spacecraft, i.e., it should be known as the AE index. I, of course, emulate Dr. Roederer in disclaiming any connection with my initials.

A tour around this part of the world with the AE index shows that Israel has an index of 10 compared with  $2 \times 10^{-1}$  for Egypt and even smaller values for other countries in the region. India has approximately the same number of AGU members as Israel with a population more than two orders of magnitude greater. Thus, it appears that Israel is the most AGU-oriented country in Asia.

Aharon Evitar  
Tel Aviv University  
Tel Aviv, Israel

## Education Bill Passes

On March 2 the U.S. House of Representatives passed a bill authorizing \$425 million for science and mathematics education in fiscal 1984; the authorization is \$580 million more than President Ronald Reagan requested in his budget proposal (Eos, February 15, 1983, p. 85).

H.R. 1310 allocates \$295 million to the Department of Education not only to improve precollege instruction in science and math, but to beef up foreign language training to aid in improving international communication among scientists. The bill also allows \$100 million to the National Science Foundation for a variety of programs, the lion's share of which aims to upgrade research equipment at colleges and universities. It is hoped that the bill will match the \$100 million targeted for this program.

Although the Senate has yet to draw up a companion bill, hearings were held by the Education, Arts, and Humanities subcommittee of the Senate Labor and Human Resources committee on March 8 and 9 at the Education Security Act and related science and mathematics legislation. Follow-up hearings are scheduled for April 7.—BTR

## Books

### Introduction to Tides: The Tides of the Waters of New England and New York

A. C. Redfield, Marine Science International, Woods Hole, Mass., 108 pp., 1980.

Reviewed by Malcolm J. Bowman

This interesting little book is not really about what its main title suggests, an introductory text on tides for oceanography students. Its subtitle gives more of a clue to its contents and intended readership. The author immediately points out in the preface that "this book is written for the many intelligent people who work or play along the coast between Sandy Hook and the Bay of Fundy."

In addition to discussing elementary tidal theory, the book describes in some detail the author's systematic analysis of coastal tides and currents in the New England and New York region. His analysis fits the solution of the telegrapher's equation to Tide Table predictions of tidal elevations and times of high water and slack current. In this way, Redfield separates the observed  $M_2$  tides in various straits, embayments, hydraulic channels, and estuaries into damped, progressive waves traveling in opposite directions. These waves arise through reflection of the primary wave at the head of an embayment or estuary, or through two primary waves entering a tidal strait or hydraulic channel from both ends.

## EOS

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**Cover.** Roll clouds spell trouble; they are often on the leading edge of heavy thunderstorms that can produce hail, high winds, and heavy rain. The clouds, such as those over Miles City, Mont., pictured on the cover, are but one of the many phenomena portending geographically limited but severe storm-scale weather. A call for action has been issued for a National STORM (Stormscale Operational and Research Meteorology) Program to enable meteorologists to observe and predict such small-scale weather and to apply the improved predictions to protecting the public, the national economy, and meeting defense requirements. Proponents of the 10-year, \$1-billion program say it could save 5% of the annual \$20 billion lost to severe weather. See related news story, this issue. (Photo courtesy of Phil Roskowi, National Center for Atmospheric Research/National Science Foundation.)

Using a nomographic method, the technique produces curves of mean tidal range and times of high tide and slack water along the waterway for optimum estimates of the damping and reflection coefficients. These predictions, well known from Redfield's pioneering use of the method in his series of papers during the 1950's, are quite good for the tidal height and interval but not for slack water. This is to be expected, since the equations were originally developed for use in a rectangular uniform channel, and take no account of the effects of weather, overide generation, the earth's rotation, bathymetry, and varying cross sections of the waterways studied.

Unfortunately, most of the intended readers will probably not understand the summary of the theory as given in chapter 3, nor, therefore, its application; they will have to read the original papers for that. Even then only those familiar with elementary trigonometry and calculus will make much sense of it. (Coastal engineers have made much use of the method and a particularly good discussion is given in A. T. Ippen and D. R. F. Harleman, "Tidal dynamics in estuaries, in *Estuary and Coastal Hydrodynamics*, edited by A. T. Ippen, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1966.)

Another criticism one could make of the text is that no mention is made of the whole realm of numerical tidal modeling. Numerical simulations are now sufficiently easy to apply and accurate to be of major importance in the production of tidal atlases of semi-enclosed seas and navigable waterways. In spite of this, and allowing for the limitations inherent in the fitting of linear, one-dimensional, damped wave theory to coastal tides, the book is immensely readable and will find its way to the bookshelves of mariners, amateur scientists, and oceanographers all along the northeastern seaboard. Professional coastal oceanographers will also find it a quick source of useful facts and figures.

One thing Alfred Redfield does not disclose is the secret of his longevity. How a man had the energy and lucidity to produce such an interesting book as he approached his nineteenth birthday is a source of wonder to me. Perhaps the characteristics cited by the late Botwick H. Keckum in his foreword ("his interest in natural phenomena and his curiosity about them have been undiminished by passing years") have had a lot to do with it.

Malcolm J. Bowman is with the Marine Sciences Research Center, State University of New York at Stony Brook.

### Igneous Rocks of the British Isles

D. S. Sutherland (Ed.), Wiley-Interscience, New York, xv + 645 pp., 1982.

Reviewed by K. L. Currie

Much of the foundation of petrology was laid on the igneous rocks of the British Isles—one need only recall the Tertiary igneous rocks of northern Scotland. However, the relations between various occurrences of these igneous rocks (and in some cases even their locations) have remained obscure for many of us familiar with the British Isles only through the voluminous literature. This weighty and densely written tome will serve as a most useful guide and reference for all those interested in British igneous rocks. The volume specifically aims to continue that grand classic of observational geology, *Ancient Volcanoes of Great Britain* by Archibald Geikie. It does not achieve quite that level but will surely remain an indispensable general reference for many years if only because of its extensive bibliography.

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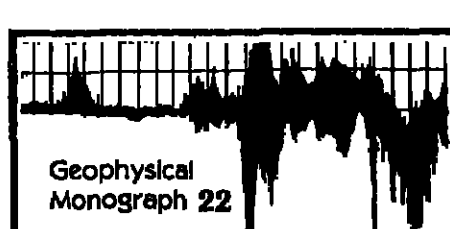
The volume includes contributions by 37 coauthors divided into seven parts and three appendices. The rocks have been divided according to age and type, namely the Precambrian, Lower Paleozoic volcanic rocks, Caledonian intrusive rocks, Devonian and Carboniferous volcanism, Hercynian intrusive rocks, Late Paleozoic and Mesozoic igneous activity, and the British Tertiary province; petrographic, chemical, and isotopic details are relegated to three appendices. Each part is further broken down into a general introduction followed by several articles on particular occurrences or aspects of the igneous rocks.

The usefulness of reference books of this kind depends on the quality of the introductory chapters and on the completeness of the indices. In both respects this volume rates high. The indices are exceptionally good, and the introductory chapters do a good job at placing the later material in context, although I was rather overwhelmed by the profusion of place names. This generally laudatory comment does not imply that anyone can readily sit down and get an overall picture of the igneous history of the British Isles from this book. In the first place there are certain difficulties of organization, perhaps inevitable. Only peripherally and in passing is it noted that the part on Devonian and Carboniferous volcanism treats rocks contemporary with, and possibly consanguine with, Caledonian and Hercynian intrusives. The quality of the writing varies from pedestrian in extremely dense, I found it heavy going because of the wealth of references and the attempt to get the maximum number of facts into the minimum amount of space. Still, the facts are there if the reader will dig for them. A wealth of small locality maps greatly aid the visualization. Occasionally these maps cannot be easily referred to larger scale maps, but in general the "hierarchical" organization is good. The number of photos is limited, but their quality is excellent.

The various articles treat mainly of descriptive aspects of the rocks with sketches and localities. Some authors treat bulk chemical data by presenting various diagrams, but there is little treatment of mineral chemistry or of specialized chemical data such as rare earths, although such details can in general be traced in the very extensive bibliography. Treatment of petrological problems is sketchy and superficial. Some sections are quite repetitive, particularly the one on the Tertiary, where Mull and Arran are treated in three successive articles. The distribution of space may seem somewhat idiosyncratic also. The Tertiary rocks receive the most space, 153 pages, which is not unreasonable, but 54 pages for the celebrated *Herrnstein granites* of Cornwall, when compared with 118 pages for Carboniferous-Permian volcanism and 88 for lower Paleozoic volcanism, seems somewhat unbalanced. The selection of data for the appendices exhibits some peculiarities.

The appendix on petrography starts off with a modest econium to the Streckeisen classification and then reverts to such terminological monstrosities as "marsoicite," "iregelvanite," and "rockallite." According to the chemical data, trace element analyses are rare or absent for the Tertiary province and for the Caledonian intrusives.

Despite these reservations, the book clearly succeeds in its object of giving condensed descriptions of the significant localities of igneous rocks in the British Isles. The question remains whether there is a clientele for such a large, expensive, and specialized book. It cannot be read for sheer pleasure, unlike its distinguished predecessor, *Ancient Volcanoes of Great Britain*. The quantity and level of information are insufficient for specialists wishing to study a particular complex either in the field or in the literature, although it will un-



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doubtedly be of great use as a guide and entry to the literature. The obvious place for this book is therefore on the reference shelf of libraries, where it will doubtless remain the standard work on the subject for many years. Few individuals will be interested in this book for their private library.

K. L. Currie is with the Geological Survey of Canada, Ottawa, Ontario.

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